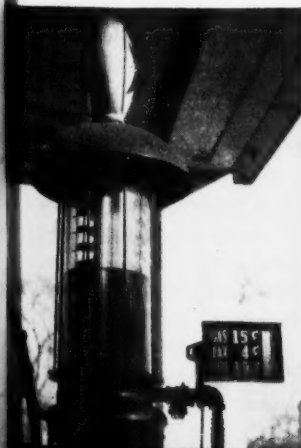




WHEAT

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

JULY 1939



GASOLINE



NEW USES



BOOKSHELF



FOOD PRICES

CONSUMERS' GUIDE

JULY 1939 VOLUME VI, NUMBER 5

A Publication of the
Agricultural Adjustment Administration
Consumers' Counsel Division
D. E. MONTGOMERY, Consumers' Counsel

Issued Semi-monthly
(Monthly during June, July,
August, and September)

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Washington, D. C.

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STUDENTS sometimes think of going to town as a strenuously gay means of escape from texts and classes. Some students in New York City last year, in a college course on the consumer in economic society, used the town as their text. This demonstration course was given by an economist formerly of the *Consumers' Guide* staff. Going to town, the students got a consumers' eyview of the world.

One trip to town took them through a big dairy. They saw the physical machinery of milk processing and distribution. Interviewing a Government milk specialist, they got some idea of the economics of milk. And with a dietitian they followed the economic problem into the homes of low income families trying to get enough milk for the youngsters.

Another day they went to town to go through a candy factory and a bakery whose biscuits sell in many States. There these students got a vivid idea of the mass production of foods. Listening to employers and employees of the factories, they also got an insight into New York State's minimum wage law as one approach to the goal of higher living standards for consumers who are wage earners.

Farm surpluses and their distribution to the underfed in the cities took on a new meaning after the students had completed a couple of other field trips. One took them into the homes of low income families in New York City. The other led them from office to warehouse to local station through which distribution of food by the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation is handled.

Turning to the customary channels of distributing perishable foodstuffs, the students followed for themselves the route which fruits and vegetables take in getting to New York consumers. The route led from the

Jersey side of the Hudson River to New York on car floats, onto the railroad piers, into the freight and refrigerator cars, through the auction halls, and out into the market right up to the place where fruits and vegetables are loaded onto trucks for the last time before they go off to the retailers. Curious students on this trip buttonholed jobbers and market superintendents to get their story of the bewildering tracking and backtracking that fruits and vegetables go through.

New York has its advantages when it comes to showing a class its way around the world. But there is no place in the country which doesn't offer similar opportunities for introducing students into the realities of what's going on.

JOT DOWN as a fallacy the belief that a college education rids a person of his fallacies.

Not so long ago (November 29, 1937) the *Consumers' Guide* published an article on food fallacies. Since then an educator has made a survey of the fallacies held by high school students, college students, and just plain adults.

Found hiding in the mental crevices of students and adults were some fallacies that are venerably whiskered.

Two percent of the high school students questioned, 6 percent of the college students, and 9 percent of the adults, for example, believed that thunderstorms hasten the souring of milk.

Thunderstorms don't sour milk, an inquiry among the Department of Agriculture's milk experts established. It's the action of bacteria multiplying in milk which produces the souring. Heat is an aid to bacteria in their multiplication, however; and cold retards their development.

But thunderstorms are most likely to occur during a period of warm weather, and that, the experts say, is behind the fallacy. Before the days of effective refrigeration, after a spell of hot weather followed by a thunderstorm, someone would look at the milk and find it sour. Deduction was: Thunderstorms made milk sour.

Keep your milk cold, and you needn't worry about thunderstorms. Indeed modern refrigeration is so well developed that cream or milk can be kept in cold storage for a number of months, and shipped economically for thousands of miles (when State or other man-made barriers don't interfere).

A fallacy that commands a large following is the one about black eyes and beefsteaks. Forty percent of the high school students, 36 percent of the college students, and 20 percent of the adults, believed that if you

applied raw meat . . . preferably a beefsteak . . . to a black eye, the swelling would go down.

Doctors from the Public Health Service say that if you're unlucky enough to acquire a black eye the thing to do with the beefsteak is to eat it—and apply a cold compress to your eye.

It's quite true, they say, that raw meat pressed against a black eye will reduce the swelling. But that is because a raw beefsteak is likely to be cool and moist. Anything else that is cool and moist will do the trick just as well. And a cold compress will do it better and at less cost.

A fallacy that helps explain all these fallacies is the one held by 5 out of each 100 folks queried in this census of superstition. They thought that excessive use of the brain might cause baldness.

WHAT happens to the prices of commodities in a State when resale prices are fixed under the so-called fair trade or resale price maintenance laws is the subject of an inquiry now in progress by the Federal Trade Commission.

In many States, laws have been passed permitting manufacturers to enter into contracts with retailers under which all retailers must charge a minimum fixed price for the manufacturer's product.

Prices go up, some people have said, as the result of these laws. Prices go down, other people say. Prices stay where they are, still others say, or maybe prices go down in some stores and up in others.

To find out just what happens to prices after a resale price maintenance law is passed and enforced, the Federal Trade Commission's economic staff will pursue 3 lines of inquiry.

First, it will examine the products which have been price-fixed. It will find out what they sold for before the price-fixing law went into effect, and then it will check the prices to see what happened after the law went into effect. To furnish a measuring stick, similar studies will be made of competing products whose prices have not been fixed under a price control law.

Prices of course may stand still while quality of an article is changed. Working on the theory that price unrelated to quality has no meaning, the Commission will also compare the quality of products whose prices have been fixed with those that have not had their prices controlled.

Finally, the Commission will try to ascertain just how the demand for price-fixing laws arose, what methods were used to line up support in their behalf, and what methods were used to implement the laws.



Another Battle Against Waste and Want

On three fronts wheat farmers are waging their campaign to insure bread for America, a living for themselves, and soil for the harvests of tomorrow



WHEAT WILL WIN THE WAR! the posters said. But they never said a word about the peace.

War over, wheat farmers along with everyone else settled down to enjoy the prosperity that is supposed to come with peace.

But peace-time prosperity never loomed into sight for wheat farmers.

Wheat bins, overloaded with harvests from war-time acreage, made wheat prices shrink and farm incomes shrivel. With the war won, it looked as if the wheat farmer had lost the peace.

As years of want passed, one after the other, wheat farmers and others turned to the Government for help. In 1929, the Congress tried to give them a hand through an Agricultural Marketing Act, establishing a Farm Board with powers to buy surpluses of farm products. These purchases were intended to bolster up farm prices. In time, however, the mounting supplies left in the Government's hands had just the opposite

effect. By 1933, both farmers and Government knew that controlling marketing without adjusting production, was like stopping up a leaky boat by emptying it with a tin can.

A PROGRAM was laid out in the new Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1933. With its passage, the peace tide began to turn. After invalidation of the first AAA by the Supreme Court in 1936, another farm program came into being, followed 2 years later by the present wheat program, as part of the new Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938. For 6 years wheat farmers have been using their new weapons for the peace-time battle against weather and low prices.

Wheat farmers, fighting for balanced production, adequate income, and lands made safe against winds, rain, and depletion, are following an 8-point strategy in their campaign:

FIRST: Because wheat that cannot be sold beats down all wheat prices and wastes valu-

able soil, farmers cooperating with AAA are trying to keep a checkrein on production. With the help of AAA, they try to balance production against the amount of wheat which they think that consumers with cash to spend will buy. This they do by cooperatively agreeing on the number of acres they will plant to wheat.

The law says that the powers given to AAA must never be used to encourage farmers to cut down on production so severely





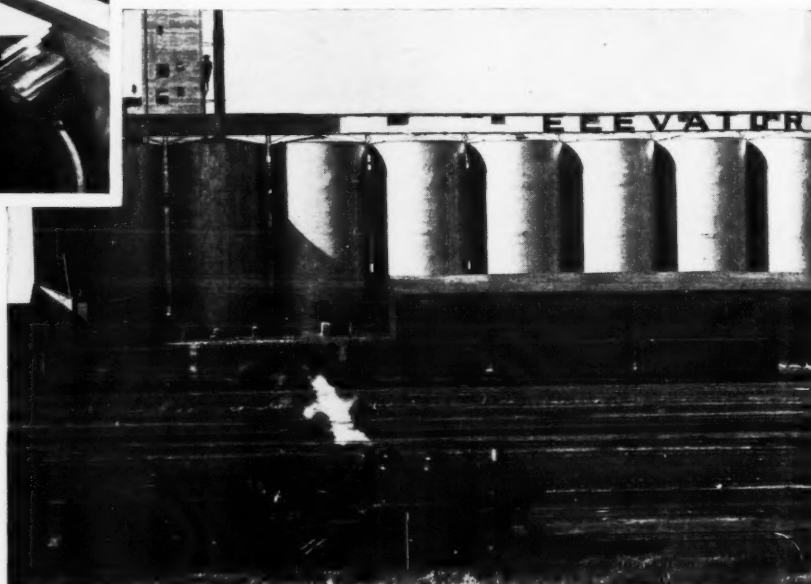
that they produce less than the amounts that consumers in this country normally buy. That sets a bottom limit to the adjusting which wheat farmers may do with their acres.

SECOND: If an especially big crop of wheat is produced, despite all effort to adjust the number of acres; if this crop is at least a third bigger than the normal amount consumed at home or sold abroad, then wheat farmers have another protection they may use. They can vote to restrict the amount of wheat that may be marketed freely, but at least two-thirds of the farmers voting must agree that this is a good thing to do, before regulations regarding the amount of wheat to be sold go into effect.

THIRD: Payments are made to wheat farmers who take the trouble and go to the expense of conserving their lands. So often in wheat farming, the cheapest and easiest way of farming wastes the soil. Farmers who are hard up have to use the cheapest and easiest way to farm. To help them take care of their land so that the next generation and the ones after that will have productive, tillable soil, the people of this country, through their Government, pay wheat farmers who cooperate an "agricultural conservation payment."

FOURTH: If, in spite of these adjustments, farm income remains below parity, then Congress has provided for a direct cash adjustment in income to help make up the difference. This is called a "price adjustment payment." "Parity price" is the price that will buy as much goods as the price of wheat would buy in prewar years. Price adjustment payments help to recompense wheat farmers when, because there is a great abundance of wheat, the price of wheat gives farmers inadequate buying power.

FIRE, tornado, accident, life, and now crop insurance. Wheat farmers may insure themselves through the Federal Crop Insurance Corporation against total loss from crop failure. The Corporation's reserves of actual wheat in storage insure consumers, too, against shortage of grain for bread and cereals.



FIFTH: Farmers, who must sell wheat quickly if they are going to be able to buy shoes and gasoline and other necessities, often have to sell when prices are low. If they could wait until wheat prices climb up, they'd get lots more goods for their money, because farm prices move up and down much faster than the prices of most manufactured goods. To help wheat farmers hold off until prices are better, there are wheat loans they can have from the Government.

SIXTH: Crop insurance, another weapon in the wheat farmer's battle for security, shifts to wheat growers, as a group rather than to the individual grower, the burden and expense of crop losses due to unpredictable weather.

SEVENTH: A Government-aided export plan helps to give wheat farmers better returns for their crops in years when huge world supplies make normal exports unprofitable. To make further exports possible the Government undertakes to help export sufficient wheat to keep the domestic price from dropping to a point where domestic as well as export production becomes distinctly unprofitable.

EIGHTH: Finally, the Federal Surplus Commodity Corporation comes in and buys wheat products to give, free of charge, to the millions of consumers who have no way of

buying them, because their incomes also are so wretchedly small.

Taken together, these features add up to an 8-fold program aiming at protection of the Nation's daily bread, and an American standard of living for the Nation's wheat producers.

Keystone of the program is acreage adjustment. Acreage allotment makes it possible for the Nation's wheat farmers to attack this problem cooperatively. It encourages farmers to keep their seedings within the total acreage which may be expected to produce an amount of wheat equal to what consumers normally buy plus the amount of wheat that export markets might be expected to take, plus an additional amount which growers and consumers both need as a margin of safety.

Once this total acreage has been determined for the Nation, it is apportioned among the wheat-producing States on the basis of their previous wheat acreages. Each State's allotment is then divided among the counties of the State on the same basis, except that consideration is also given to the promotion of soil-conserving practices. Within the counties, sharing in acreage allotments by individual farms is managed by the farmers themselves through local committees elected by farmers cooperating in the program.

AS IN ANY DEMOCRACY, the local part of the wheat plan stands or falls with the individual

farmer. He can join up or stay out of the allotment program. Only in the case of a national emergency, and not even then until there has been approval by two-thirds of the wheat farmers voting in a national referendum, is the farmer in any way restricted if he decides not to follow the national program.

Taking part in a program means that the farmer agrees to limit his wheat seedings to the number of acres which is his fair share of the Nation's quota. It also means that he will do his part in the job of reclaiming soil that has been exhausted and of conserving soil that is still fertile.

By planting within these allotments, wheat producers in 1939 become eligible to earn 17 cents per bushel on the normal yield of their acreage allotment in the form of agricultural conservation payments, and 11 cents per bushel in the form of price-adjustment or so-called "parity" payments. Price-adjustment payments on wheat are being made for the first time in 1939.

IN ADDITION to receiving these payments, cooperating farmers who plant within their allotments are also eligible for Government wheat loans. In years past, farmers' urgent need for ready cash often forced them to market their wheat direct from the threshing machine. The sudden deluge of wheat often knocked the bottom out of the market. Within a few months prices might return to normal, but not for the benefit of the farmer, for his wheat had already been sold. Now farmers may borrow money on their wheat and market their crop in an orderly fashion whenever during the year prices seem most favorable.

Such loans will soon be made available on the 1939 crop, and will average approximately 75 to 80 percent of the market price of wheat for the last 10 years. Collateral for the loans is the wheat the farmer has raised. When the farmer obtains the loan, he may store the wheat in a sealed bin on his own farm, or he may haul it to town for storage in a commercial warehouse.

MORE THAN 49 million dollars were loaned to farmers on nearly 86 million bushels of 1938-produced wheat. Repayments totaling 19 million dollars had been made by late May of this year, releasing approximately 35 million bushels of wheat to farmers for seed or sale at a higher price.

Wheat loans do over a short period what acreage allotments and balanced harvests do over a longer period. They tend to stabilize the price. Acreage allotments and soil conservation seek the same end in terms of generations rather than years.

But that is not all. By crop insurance, the wheat program brings a share of certainty to an enterprise long the victim of nature's greatest uncertainty, the weather. Insurance, both in theory and in operation, is old. But applied effectively to crops, it is brand new, just now in its first year of operation.

LIFE INSURANCE does not prevent people from dying. Fire insurance does not prevent houses from burning down. But by means of fire insurance a group of people can get together and say, "If anyone of us has his house burnt down, we will all chip in and help pay for a new house. Each of us may pay a little—but we are sure none of us will be ruined."

Crop insurance is like that. But it goes even further. It says to each farmer in the bargain, "You will not have to stand all the loss from crop disasters." Then it turns to consumers and says, "There is a guarantee here for you, and if it works out, there will always be enough wheat to take care of your needs."

Premiums which farmers pay on crop insurance are paid in wheat or in cash. When cash is used the Federal Crop Insurance Corporation takes the cash and buys actual wheat. In this way a reserve is built up to provide for the wheat needs of the country in case there is a year in which the wheat crop fails. It is the Ever-Normal Granary.

By paying to the Federal Crop Insurance

Corporation a premium of a few bushels of wheat or its cash equivalent at planting time, the wheat farmer can insure himself against a total loss through crop disaster. He may choose to insure either 50 percent or 75 percent of the average yield of wheat on his farm.

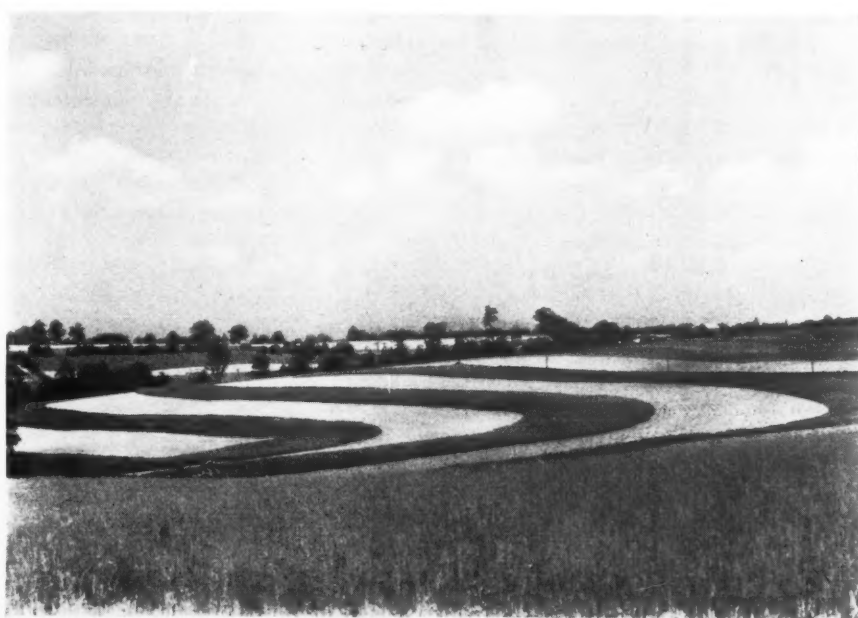
Say a farmer insures his crop, as nearly 170 thousand farmers have done this year, and drought reduces his harvest to one-fourth of his average yield. Assuming that he took 75 percent coverage, as most farmers do, he would notify the Federal Crop Insurance Corporation and it would pay to him—either in actual bushels of wheat or in cash—the difference between what he harvested and 75 percent of the average wheat yield of his farm.

Reserves of the Crop Insurance Corporation, reserves of actual wheat in warehouses, can be tapped. Abundance in fat years is guaranty against shortage in lean years. It is the first big bin in the Ever-Normal Granary, a way by which men can balance their harvests against the caprices and whims of nature.

In doing this the farmer is insured against crop loss. The Nation is insured against a wheat shortage.

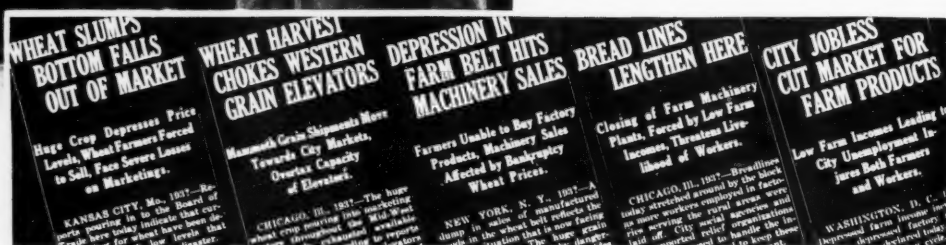
FOR CENTURIES wheat has been important in world trade, and for many decades the United States has been one of the chief wheat-exporting countries of the world. Our broad expanse of western wheat land is one

THROUGH the AAA wheat program the American people share with farmers the cost of maintaining soil fertility on the Nation's farms. Soil conservation practices, like the strip farming here, mean land saved for tomorrow's consumers as well as tomorrow's producers.





BREAD lines grow long in cities when the Nation fails to balance production and consumption. To help create the balance of plenty for all, the AAA has launched an 8-point program for wheat farmers. One point is the distribution through the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation of surplus wheat to families in want.



of the natural "bread baskets" of the world. Consequently, the American wheat producer, like the producer of many other agricultural commodities, needs not only the American market but also an adequate export outlet. For many years he had such an outlet—particularly during the World War, when Allied armies depended heavily upon him.

But things changed after the war. Tariffs and trade barriers were erected around what had been open markets. Competition for the world wheat market intensified. American wheat was in danger of being forced out of world trade.

TO MEET this situation, the current program undertakes to assure the American producer a fair share of the world market through a wheat-export program. The Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation buys wheat from producers at domestic prices, and sells it to exporters at a price which enables them to meet world competition.

During the first 11 months of the past marketing year, a total of 112½ million bushels of wheat was exported from this country, 88 million bushels with the help of the Federal wheat-export program. Such results show that in the face of increased world competition and higher import barriers, the United States can hold its fair share of the world trade for the producers of an important export commodity. And the sale of 88 mil-

lion bushels of wheat through the Federal export program resulted in better prices for the whole 1938 crop.

Estimates indicate that without the AAA program, farmers would lose not only their payments and opportunities to obtain loans, but also would very likely be forced to sell their wheat at prices much lower than present United States market levels.

NOR ARE the needs of America's underprivileged consumers overlooked. From July 1, 1938, to May 31, 1939, the Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation distributed the equivalent of nearly 6½ million bushels of surplus wheat to needy consumers eligible to receive this assistance. Wheat is one of the surplus commodities for which wider use is now being sought through the "stamp plan" method of distribution.

These, then, are the weapons of the battle which wheat farmers are waging against weather and want.

NO BATTLE of this size or seriousness could be waged by farmers alone. Allied with the farmers are the consumers of the Nation who are supplying farmers with ammunition, in the form of cash payments through the Federal Treasury and in the slightly higher prices paid for wheat products. This year wheat farmers are receiving \$153,000,000 in "agricultural conservation payments" and "price

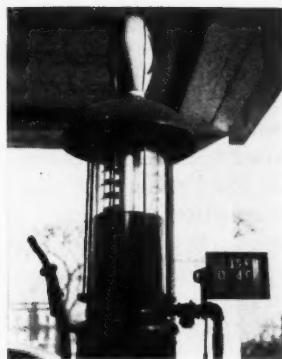
adjustment payments." This represents an investment by consumers in the land and the people on whom consumers must depend for their daily bread and to whom city workers must sell their products if wages are to be decent.

Against the cost of the wheat program, too, there should be placed the alternative costs of neglect. When impoverished farmers are not cared for, farms are lost; farm implements and land deteriorate; farm families suffer malnutrition and illness; city workers lose markets for their products.

Millions invested in preventing such things can be cheap.

FARMERS' SHARE of consumers' food dollars in 1938 was the smallest in 4 years. Out of every dollar consumers spent for 58 important foods, 40 cents went into farmers' pockets last year; 45 cents in 1937; 44 cents in 1936; 42 cents in 1935. When food was cheapest—back in 1932-33, farmers got 33 to 35 cents out of each consumer food dollar. When food was most expensive, during the "prosperity" days of 1925-29, the farmers' share was 47 to 48 cents.

Between the price consumers pay and the price farmers receive are all the costs and profits of processing, transporting, and marketing these 58 foods.



They Sell Gasoline by Grade

North Carolina takes some of the gamble out of buying



LESS GUESSING and more wise spending is what North Carolina motorists are doing as the result of a State law which requires all gasoline sold in the State to be quality graded.

Advantages to motorists are exactly those that consumers enjoy when they buy Government-graded meat. They know they are getting the quality they pay for. And a minimum quality standard for the lowest grade of gasoline sold in the State assures them that they won't clog up their motors with adulterated or substandard gasoline.

Consumers don't have to own an unabridged dictionary to look up the adjectives used in describing gasoline and they don't have to worry about how much extravagant claims for different brands should be discounted.

All they need to do is know what grade of gasoline they want. The State grading system then offers them an opportunity to drive out and buy that grade at the best price available.

GASOLINE in North Carolina comes in 3 grades: "North Carolina Premium," the highest grade; "North Carolina Regular," the second grade; and "North Carolina Motor," the lowest grade.

Specifications for the grades were worked out by the chemists of the North Carolina Gasoline and Oil Inspection Division of the State Department of Revenue. They are based upon a number of chemical tests which assess such technical matters as the distillation range of the gasoline, its tendency to corrode, its sulphur content, its vapor pressure, and its gum content.

Depending upon the kind of car they drive, motorists can decide for themselves which of the 3 grades of gasoline is most economical for them to use. The lowest grade, "North Carolina Motor," for example, is not suitable for automobiles with high compression motors.

This gasoline, however, must be free of water and suspended matter; it must have an

octane rating of at least 60, and it must not contain more than a stated amount of gum and sulphur. "North Carolina Regular" gasoline must meet higher standards, and has an octane rating of 68. The Premium gasoline must score even higher and it must have an octane rating of 75.

SO CONSUMERS may know just what the difference between the grades is, the North Carolina State chemists explain that octane rating is the measure of a gasoline's tendency to cause motor knocks, the higher the rating, the fewer the knocks. Gum in a gasoline makes the valves and pistons stick while excessive sulphur corrodes an automobile engine.

Gasoline destined for North Carolina automobiles is graded originally at the refineries. And since most North Carolina gasoline comes from Texas, this is done by the oil companies in Texas. Steel tankers carry the gasoline from Texas through the Gulf of Mexico and up the Atlantic Coast to North Carolina where it is pumped into huge storage tanks on shore. Here the gasoline is drawn out of the tanks and shipped to key distributing tanks all over the State. From these tanks the gasoline is shipped to the retail stations.

Inspection of gasoline begins with its arrival in the State. Samples are drawn as soon as the gasoline is pumped ashore which are tested to see if they check with the grade

THIS CONSUMER who lives in the District of Columbia isn't as lucky as North Carolina motorists who don't have to guess when they make their gasoline purchases. Three official North Carolina grades for gasoline assure them that they are getting the gasoline quality they are paying for. In the District of Columbia gasoline is not sold under Government grade.



claimed for the gasoline. Gasoline which does not meet the requirements for the lowest grade may not be sold in the State at all.

Testing does not stop here, however, because as time goes on gasoline quality may change. More samples are drawn from the wholesale distributing tanks through the State. Then when the gasoline is finally distributed to retail gasoline stations, it is subject to further testing.

CHEMICAL LABORATORIES on wheels are the scenes for the final checkup on gasoline quality. Five chemical patrols, each one consisting of a trailer laboratory with a crew of chemists and inspectors, police the gasoline sold in the State. The traveling laboratories drive into a city and park. Then with the trailer as their headquarters inspectors scout out the gasoline situation. They go from gasoline station to gasoline station in the vicinity taking samples of the gasoline sold from every pump. These samples are then tested in the trailer laboratories, while duplicate samples are expressed to the State chemical laboratories in Raleigh.

In case the trailer test shows that a gasoline does not measure up to its purported grade, the inspector on the spot prevents further sales. If the results of the trailer tests are verified in Raleigh, a telephone call to the inspector in the area instructs him to seal the pump containing the offending gasoline.

Only two and one-half hours elapse between the time a sample of gasoline is taken and the tests are run off in the trailer.

So that the grade and price of gasoline can be identified by motorists on the road, pumps selling the different grades of gasoline are marked with distinguishing colors. The "premium" grade is identified by a label with a blue design on a white background, the "regular" grade by red designs on a white background, and the "motor" grade by black designs on a yellow background.

JUST HOW useful the grading law can be to consumers if they make good use of it, is illustrated in a survey the Gasoline and Oil Inspection Division made recently in Raleigh. A 4-month checkup showed that North Carolina "Regular Grade" gasoline sold at prices which ranged from 16 2/3 cents a gallon to 21 3/10 cents a gallon. But whether consumers paid the top price for the grade or the bottom price they got the same quality gasoline.

That is what the State of North Carolina is doing to assure motorists of a dollar's worth of gasoline quality for every dollar's worth of legal tender they spend.



CHECKING gasoline quality and quantity, the North Carolina Gasoline and Oil Inspection Division maintains a fleet of trailer laboratories manned by crews of chemists and inspectors. When a pump is inaccurate or a gasoline fails to come up to its advertised grade the gasoline pump is sealed to prevent further sales.

In addition, the Gasoline and Oil Inspection Division makes sure that motorists ask full measure for the money they spend.

Back in 1936 a survey was made to determine just how effective was the State's weights and measures law (passed in 1926) in protecting gasoline purchasers. Immediately it was learned that a failure to supply the State Weights and Measures Division with enough money to enforce the law had almost made it a dead letter so far as protecting motorists went.

TAKING the measure of this situation, the Gasoline and Oil Inspection Division lined

up a 4-point program for itself. In point No. 1 it resolved to maintain a rigorous inspection of all gasoline dispensing devices. In point No. 2 it determined to educate gasoline station operators to the benefits that can be derived from accurate measuring devices. In point No. 3 it resolved to educate gasoline station attendants in the proper methods of adjusting pumps. And in point No. 4 it took on the man-sized job of educating the general public so that it would appreciate the necessity of efficient weights and measures enforcement.

In the first year of the new order the Division inspected 33,642 gasoline, kerosene, and oil measuring devices and found that 6,307, or 18.7 percent, were inaccurate. Almost 30 percent of the gasoline pumps inspected were faulty.

In the first 6 months of the second year of its campaign, the Division inspected 16,509 measuring devices for the sale of gasoline, kerosene, and lubricating oil. It found 16.1 percent defective, somewhat of an improvement over the first year.

When a pump is so far out of whack that it can't be repaired, it is confiscated and destroyed. When it can be repaired, it is tagged conspicuously, "Condemned for Repairs." Not until the pump has been repaired and reinspected can it be used again.

When pumps come up to specifications and deliver an honest measure their measuring units are sealed to prevent tampering and they are tagged, "Inspected and Approved."

Cincinnati Consumers Go to Town

BALANCING its books for the year, the Consumer Conference of Greater Cincinnati announced recently that the credit side of its ledgers is well filled.

Since it was organized in 1934, the Conference has won for consumers in Cincinnati the adult right to sit at the council tables with other important interests in the city—industry, trade, and labor.

Conferences benefiting all the participants have been held between consumers and retailers, wholesalers and manufacturers, under the consumer organization's sponsorship.

It has presented 90 weekly radio programs. It has conducted 56 regular consumer discussion conferences.

Delegates from the Conference have attended a variety of gatherings, of the kind that ordinarily discuss matters of importance to consumers—but to which consumers ordinarily are not invited. These include a meeting of retail grocers and butchers, a conven-

tion of department store administrators, and a dry cleaners' meeting.

The conference is cooperating with other civic organizations to get a smoke abatement ordinance passed.

Working on its continuing program, the Conference has sought to educate consumers in the quality of the merchandise they buy. It has supported consumer legislation, in the city, the State, and the Nation. It has sought to secure informative labels on commodities, labels that would be helpful to both business men and consumers.

In a year the Conference was responsible for pushing the purchase of Government-graded meat for consumers up to a point where Cincinnati is among the first 10 cities in the country in the amount of quality-graded meat it consumes. Until the Conference began this work, not a pound of graded meat had been sold in Cincinnati.

FROM sweetpotatoes comes starch for the Nation's laundries. A new industry dedicated to the once lowly tuber is emerging from chemistry laboratories. The laundry checker on the right wears a uniform finished with sweetpotato starch; the other two pictures show the process of sweetpotatoes-into-starch.



New Uses for Old Products

While farmers seek to get a fairer share of consumers' dollars by adjusting their production, scientists in laboratories are helping to increase farmers' income by finding new ways to utilize old products and prevent waste. Science alone cannot solve agriculture's problems, but it is showing how it can help



FARMERS OF THE FUTURE have their eyes on chemical laboratories as well as grocery stores.

Chemical research has found ways in which agriculture, in addition to feeding and clothing the Nation, may provide raw materials for many industrial products. The search for new industrial uses for farm products is being vigorously pushed.

To the consumer the application of chemical science now means starch for his shirts from sweetpotatoes; the steering wheel of his car from soybeans; maybe some day fuel for his car from corn or his suit of clothes from a forest of pines.

Ten years ago chemical research on industrial use of farm products was still in its toddling stage. Up to now it has hardly managed to get one foot out of the laboratory into the factory world. Trace your finger back on the calendar until you reach the years of the war. Stop there. During the war years this country was cut off from essential raw materials that went into many of our industrial products. In scattered laboratories worried scientists began to look for substitutes for these raw materials—not so much

to grow two plants where there had previously been one, but to unravel the mysteries of that plant and to put it to greater industrial uses.

The 20's brought a new type of farm problem—the problem of surpluses. Wheat, cotton, grains piled up in warehouses as we changed from a debtor to a creditor nation status and American agriculture found itself in the "post-war depression" years.

Problems of surpluses persisted, and as the 20's rolled into the 30's, the Nation's farmers began to understand the economic implications of the "paradox of plenty." Scientists in private and Government laboratories began looking more eagerly than ever for new uses for those surpluses, to make fuel out of grains, plastics out of wood, paints and varnishes out of soybeans, roads out of cotton.

Man did not wait for the development of industry and science when he first began to use agricultural raw material for purposes other than his dinner table. By accident or by the crude experiments of the alchemist, he knew that paper or parchment could be made from plant fibers, that sails for his boats could be made from the same plants.

The savage in the jungle made his paints and dyes from vegetables, and mixed his own medicines from vegetable growths he grew to recognize. No one knows who was the first to discover that leather, glue, candles, and soap could be made from animal by-products and wastes.

LAST YEAR Congress appropriated 4 million dollars for the construction of 4 regional laboratories in the United States to be devoted solely to developing new uses for our major farm crops. Today steam shovels are at work on the foundations of the first of those laboratories; in about a year research will be going forward in all four.

Consumers already are reaping the benefits of research undertaken since the war. Starch is being produced in ever-increasing quantities from sweetpotatoes. The Southern pine has been hailed as a native source for newsprint, and a great new industry is prophesied for the South. In the West, filling stations have sold motor fuel made from corn and other grains.



The soybean is an old story; from this Oriental stranger to our shores has grown a new kind of farm product that goes to the Nation's dinner tables and onto its automobiles, into the paints and varnishes used by home and industry, into plastics ranging from ash trays to desks, and into a hundred and one other things that make Aladdin's genie of the lamp look like a four-flusher.

THE PRESENT is exciting enough; but it is to the future that scientists point when they speak of this new science. In the Nation's laboratories today research is going forward, products are being developed, a new era is being unfolded for agriculture. The farmer looks anxiously toward these laboratories and at his storehouses and asks: "Will it give me new outlets for my products?" The industrialist sits at the conference table and asks: "What new fields for business does science promise?" The consumer's eye roves over the store counter and asks: "Will science bring me new products, cheaper and better than those that I have been buying?"

TO ALL these questions the answer is "maybe." Oftentimes a process is developed for making a new industrial product from agricultural raw materials, but the cost of producing it is found to be too high; competing products could easily outsell it in the market. Or else the product, under tests, is found to be unsatisfactory and the scientist must start all over again. Or maybe the new process is filed away until the time when present sources for industrial products are near exhaustion. Science shies away from the spectacular or the dramatic. It does not like the limelight when it is not sure of success. That is why years are required for the perfection of a process that may have been developed overnight. And that is why, too, that science hesitates to predict what may develop a year or a decade from now.

In this article and in the one to follow, we tell of the present status of the research, of the things already accomplished, and of the discoveries that may be part of the future.

CONSIDER COTTON. There is in this country today a surplus of 11 million bales of cotton. A surplus of that size is a danger to the present and a threat to the future of cotton growers.

Chemists know how to make explosives out of cotton, just as they can make paper, plastics, motion picture films, and a hundred other products from the fiber. But most of these things can be made from other raw materials at a lower cost, so there is little present reason for scientists to waste their time on such research.

Cotton has industrial possibilities when used as a fiber. For instance, roads are now being built with cotton, the cotton fiber acting as a "brace" to hold intact the tar or asphalt of the highway. Cotton is used as a housing material, an insulator, as twine for tying mail, as a fiber to make mesh bags for shipping fruits and vegetables. Experts are experimenting with cotton as a fireproof and waterproof fabric for construction work. Already a southern mill has produced a million cotton coverings for cotton bales to replace the heavier type of covering used in the past.

FROM COTTON LINTERS—the fiber left on the seed after the cotton is removed at the gin—have come paper, insulation, phonograph records, plastics, and even fountain pens. Cottonseed has been used for many years for its valuable oil, from which are made margarine, salad dressings, soaps, candles, fertilizer, oilcloth, and even a form of "cotton rubber."

Today 40 percent of our cotton is going into "industrial uses," the remaining 60 percent going for clothing and shelter. Research is going forward on those industrial uses, such as the work on a more durable cotton fabric for tires of high speed trucks and buses, research on cotton mats for "curing" concrete, development of cotton cords for parachutes to replace those now made of the more costly silk. And, of course, ways have been found to make wider use of cotton in summer clothing, hosiery, curtains, and other types of clothing and household goods.

Cotton linters have long been used for padding and stuffing in upholstery. Now chemists are peering into the chemical family trees of the linters, and have developed a major source of cellulose from them; cellulose from linters forms the basis for 2 of the 3 major types of rayon produced in this country. From cellulose also come cellophane, plastics, films, lacquers, insulation sheets, finishings on leather and textiles, and a hundred and one other products.

MILK is a product whose byproducts loom large in the industrial picture. Skim milk, whey, and buttermilk are the major milk byproducts in creameries and cheese factories. The farmer, it is estimated, produces 53 billion pounds of skim milk annually. Nearly all of it goes into animal feed pens; a small amount actually is destroyed.

Science is looking into the milk situation and is emerging with products from milk that range from the chassis on your radio set, to a new kind of candy for your sweet tooth.

Skim milk contains casein. Properly processed, casein makes excellent glue, paper and textile coatings, paints, and plastics. On the

market today are buttons, costume jewelry, umbrella handles, and similar articles whose basis is in a form of casein from skim milk.

Chemists have but recently discovered how to make a synthetic fiber from casein that in many respects resembles natural wool. Such fibers are being produced on a commercial scale in several European countries; commercial production in this country is still lagging. The scientist hesitates to make promises, but tomorrow may see the use of skim milk to supplement domestic supplies of real wool.

Buttermilk—nearly 2 billion pounds of which annually are given to animals—is put through the scientific mill and comes out paint. That is its major nonfood use now, other than conversion into animal feeds. But work is still going forward on getting the valuable casein from the buttermilk.

WHEY—a byproduct of cheese and casein manufacture—is rich in food values, particularly in Vitamin G and in protein, calcium, and phosphorus. Animals have been getting most of these food values. Seven billion pounds of whey are given to animals or wasted annually. But the chemist is out to corral its nutritional assets for human consumption.

In the laboratories of the Bureau of Dairy Industry of the Department of Agriculture, chemists will give you fudge, chocolate, and what some punster-scientist has dubbed "wheifers." Here is candy which is one-third and more whey, yet tasting just as good but not so sweet as the candy that is made with whole milk.

Also in these laboratories are canned soups with whey substituted for milk and cream. Fruit whips made with whey can't be told from the usual product on store shelves. As a beverage by itself, whey does not find favor because of its peculiar taste, though Samuel Pepys did find it a pleasing drink when he went "to the whey house and drank a great deal of whey."

Some whey is used for medicinal purposes and for children's foods, mostly because of its high lactose content.

In the past 5 years scientists have been able to produce lactic acid from whey at low cost. Lactic acid is used in the leather industry, and in the preparation of pickles, soft drinks, and sherbets. It is also used as a solvent for lacquer and resin, while the rapidly growing plastics industry makes great use of the acid.

YOU may not believe it, but a surprising amount of the Nation's laundry, thanks to the scientist, comes home today finished with starch made from sweetpotatoes.

America imports a quarter of a billion pounds of starch annually for use in finishing fabrics, in puddings, glue, dextrin, candy, and many other products. Now a new industry is springing up in the South that will give the farmer a new market for his sweetpotatoes and lessen the dependence of this country on foreign sources of starch. A cooperative plant at Laurel, Mississippi, is producing over 1½ million pounds of the starch annually from sweetpotatoes. There is room for 150 more plants of the same size to make as much root starch as we import, according to the Chief of the Bureau of Chemistry and Soils.

Not the least of the markets waiting for the enterprising manufacturer of sweetpotato starch is the United States Government. Tests have shown that mucilage for stamps and envelope flaps made from sweetpotato starch is as good as the imported cassava

starch used today. The picture of a man wearing a shirt freshly starched with sweetpotatoes and sealing an envelop with adhesive made from that same vegetable is no bit of scientific fantasy, but a reality of today.

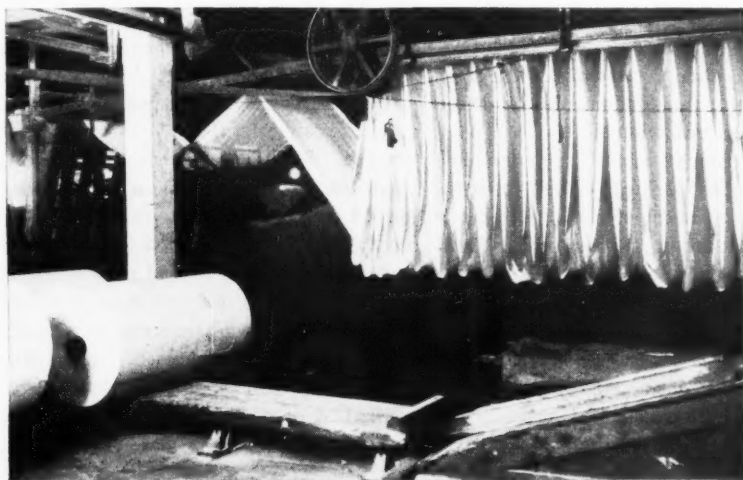
SOYBEANS came to this country from the Orient over a century ago. They have been amazing scientists ever since. From 1925 to 1937 production of the bean in this country has increased 8 times, from 5 million bushels to 40 million bushels. Today soybeans go into paints, enamels, varnish, glue, printing ink, linoleum, plastics, shortenings, margarine, foundry cores, livestock feeds, flour, various types of foods and beverages—and the scientists say they have just started!

Yachtsmen swear by the paint, made from soybean oil, that they use on their boats. The modern automobile has ash trays, gear-shift knobs, steering wheels, horn buttons, light

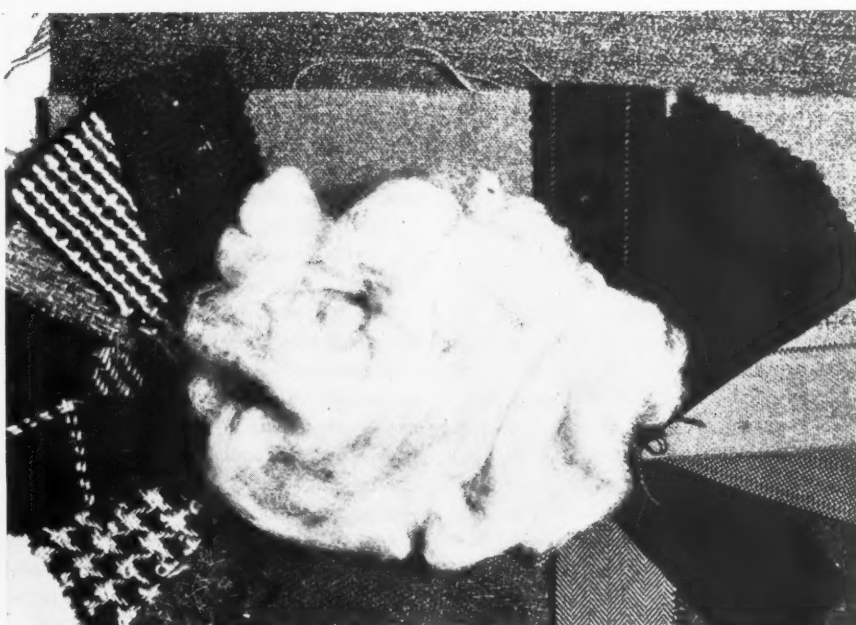
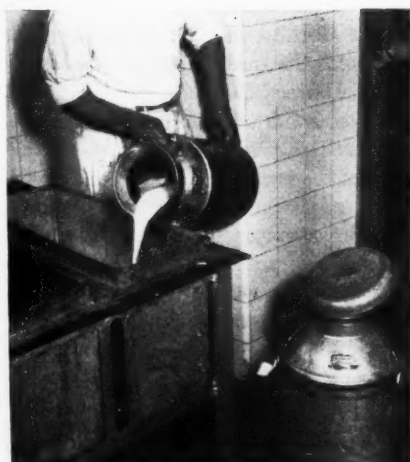
and ignition switches, all with their origins in the lowly soybean. Soybean varnishes are claimed to be among the best, and soybean plastics are said to be tougher and more durable than other plastics.

With all these developments, the future of soybeans in industry is still said to be just on the verge of going places. An ambitious program has been mapped for future research on the bean and the oil that is derived from it. The soybean has been called the "wonder bean." Whether the wonders that have been predicted for it will come true depends—like all this research—on the success of industry in adapting the discoveries of the laboratory.

In our next issue we will tell more of the ways science is working to find new uses for agricultural products.



ALMOST 50 billion pounds of skim milk are fed to animals or destroyed every year. Now chemists predict that textiles and fabrics may soon be made from this milk byproduct. Below are samples of synthetic "wool" fabrics whose origin is in the casein of skim milk. At the left, paper is being coated with casein.





THERE ARE few impartial studies of the efficiency of consumer cooperatives. It seems to be agreed on all sides that cooperative enterprises can, in the long run, achieve only such a place as their efficiency in distribution earns for them. Therefore studies of their operating expenses, and comparison of those expenses with the records of private enterprises, are needed.

Almost the first authoritative study of this kind has now come from the Bureau of Business Research of Harvard University's Graduate School of Business Administration. It is called "Operating Results of Consumer Cooperatives in the United States in 1937." The study, say its authors, has been concerned with operating results only—with margins, expenses, and profits. They have not attempted "an appraisal of consumer cooperatives as contrasted with other forms of business organization," or sought to evaluate any of the intangibles of cooperative enterprise.

Three types of consumer co-ops were studied, and detailed figures for each type are set down separately. First discussed are food store cooperatives, mostly serving urban communities. Second are the cooperative general stores, located in small towns or at country crossroads, and serving chiefly farmers. Third are farmers' purchasing associations, often connected with farm organizations, and dealing in farm supplies, and frequently in petroleum products.

Returns from 42 cooperative food stores were analyzed. Sixteen of these were in the New York area; 16 in the Chicago area; and 7 in the Superior, Wisconsin, region.

Sales per store averaged \$50,000. Thirteen of the 42 stores reported net losses during the year; all but one of those reporting losses had sales of less than \$48,000. It appears, says the study, "that, under the conditions of 1937, a cooperative had to secure average sales of about \$4,000 a month, or between \$900 and \$950 a week, before it could expect a fairly secure profit for the year as a whole from merchandising operations alone."

Margins, various items of expense, and gains are considered for the 42 food stores

as a whole. There is also a breakdown of these figures for the 9 most profitable enterprises in the group; for stores having sales of less than 25 thousand dollars a year, for those with sales between 25 and 75 thousand dollars a year, and for those with sales of 75 to 200 thousand dollars. Finally there is a breakdown of the figures according to the population of the town or city in which the stores are located; and a comparison of the figures for Eastern and for Midwestern establishments. Since only 42 food stores reported in the survey, the analyses for these various smaller classifications of food stores should be used with caution.

Gross margins (net sales minus the total net cost of merchandise) for all 42 stores averaged 18.5 percent of sales. For the 9 most profitable stores, margins came to 19.6 percent. Salaries and wages for all the stores were 9.6 percent of sales. Rent, heat, light, and power amounted to 2.55 percent. Advertising costs were 0.35 percent. Educational expenses of the co-ops, however, were listed as "unclassified" expenses; and no part of them was included under the heading of "advertising."

Total operating expenses before interest, for the food co-ops, came to 16.6 percent. Adding a charge for interest on the cooperatives' owned capital brings total operating expenses up to 17.6 percent of sales.

Profit from merchandising operations alone came to 0.9 percent. With other sources of income, from what are defined by the Bureau as "nonmerchandising operations," including the savings on interest-free capital, final net gain was 2.3 percent of sales.

Net gain, explains the Bureau, is "the figure which many merchants, bankers, and accountants have in mind when they speak of net profit, net business profit, or net earnings." It is this figure, of course, upon which cooperative societies base their patronage refunds—the typical method by which consumer cooperatives divide their gains among member-users.

A major problem in grocery store operations is the influence of meat sales upon the business. Nineteen of the 42 food stores

reported relatively high percentages—30 percent or more of their total sales—in meats. Comparable figures for stores handling little or no meats were not obtainable.

The Bureau hazards the guess that "substantial emphasis on meats tended not only to increase sales volume, but also to bring about higher rates of margin and of expense . . ."

Another conclusion which the report tentatively offers is "that meats are somewhat more difficult to handle at a profit than groceries, and that the managers of cooperative stores have not yet solved the problems peculiar to the handling of meats."

Margins and expenses for the 42 food cooperatives were not very different from the results shown by either privately owned independent stores or chain stores. Significant summary of the report, as far as food retailing goes, is this:

"... any important contribution of cooperatives to the welfare of consumers which is made through lower prices or greater values does not arise from operating efficiency in the retail stores greater than that for private enterprise. This does not mean that cooperatives cannot give better values than privately owned businesses; but it indicates that such better values, if given, probably must reflect:

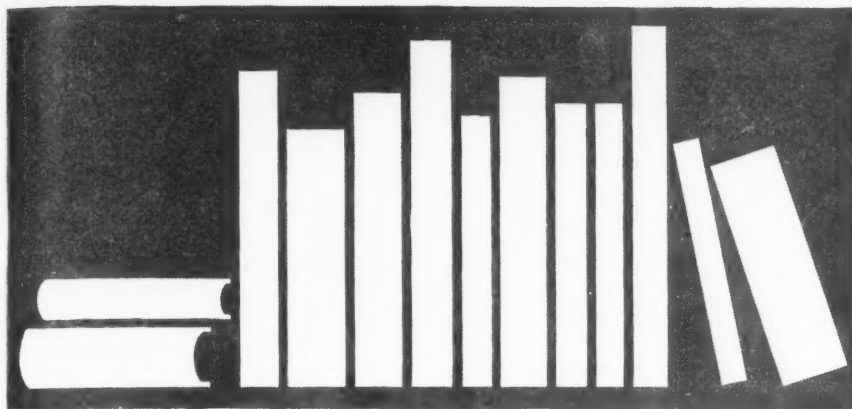
"(a) Advantages secured in wholesaling or in manufacture, possibly through private branding, coupled with a scrupulous regard, in product specifications, in labeling, and in pricing, for the interests of consumers; and
"(b) A distribution of retail profits."

TWO NEW COURSES at the Eastern Cooperative League's fifth annual Summer Institute at Amherst, Massachusetts, deal with "How to develop a first-aid-for-housewives program" in a local consumer cooperative, and "How to handle publicity and public relations."

The first special course, under the direction of the dietitian of the regional wholesale society, is designed to train leadership for "Better Buyers' Clubs" in the local co-ops. This course includes information about cooperatively labeled products and their use in the home; how to run grading demonstrations, and conduct shopping tests.

Other courses, following along the lines of previous years, take up discussion leadership and public speaking; the principles and history of the consumer cooperative movement; organization methods; problems of store operation; and financial administration.

After the general course, a second week's intensive work on management problems is given, chiefly for store managers.



CONSUMERS' BOOKSHELF

FAMILY INCOME IN FOUR URBAN COMMUNITIES IN THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST REGION 1935-36, Volume I—Study of Consumer Purchases: Urban Series, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. Bulletin 649. 1939, pp. 297. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 35 cents.

TOWARD FARM SECURITY, by A. G. Black, former Chief, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication No. 308. 1938, pp. 23, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Examines the efforts of American farmers to achieve stability of farm prices and incomes, protection against crop losses, and security of land tenure and land values. Also considers some of the problems of farm laborers.

THE FARM-HOUSING SURVEY, directed by the Bureau of Home Economics in cooperation with the Bureau of Agricultural Engineering and the Extension Service. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication 323. 1939, pp. 42. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 15 cents. This report is based on a field study of farm dwellings, their equipment and need for improvements. This publication is made up for the most part of statistical tables giving detailed information about the physical conditions of farm homes as revealed by the census of Agriculture in 1935 and the Civil Works Administration study of a 10 per cent sample of the farm dwellings in each State.

EDUCATING THE CONSUMER. A symposium. Reprint from the Journal of Home Eco-

nomics, Vol. 30, No. 9. November 1938, pp. 617-631. Address: The American Home Economics Association, Mills Building, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Contains articles expressing contrasting points of view on consumer education. (1) Wherefores of Consumer Education, by Jessie V. Coles, Professor of Home Economics, University of Missouri. (2) The Retailer and Consumer Education, by Saul Cohn, President of the National Retail Dry Goods Association. (3) Joint Progress of Home Economics and Advertising, by Howard W. Dickinson of the American Association of Advertising Agencies. (4) The Home Economist in Business Regards the Education of the Consumer, by Dorothy E. Shank, home economist employed by a business firm. (5) Case History of a Consumer, by Ruth Wilson Tryon, a homemaker. (6) What High School Students Know About Buying and Money Management, by Kenneth B. Haas, U. S. Office of Education.

A STATISTICAL HANDBOOK OF FARMERS' COOPERATIVES, by U. S. Farm Credit Administration. Bulletin No. 26. 1938, pp. 330. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 35 cents. Lists and discusses the major types of marketing and purchasing cooperative associations, placing special emphasis on their volume of business, membership, and management problems related to financing.

WHAT EVERY PERSON SHOULD KNOW ABOUT MILK, by Leslie C. Frank, U. S. Public Health Service. Supplement No. 150 to the Public Health Reports, superseding Reprint No. 1659. 1939, pp. 10. Address: Su-

perintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 5 cents. Discusses the values of milk as a food, and methods for safeguarding it to prevent it from transmitting disease. Explains model uniform regulations for milk control prepared by the National Advisory Board of the U. S. Public Health Service.

THE PASTEURIZATION OF MILK, by C. J. Babcock, Bureau of Dairy Industry. Leaflet No. 177. 1939, pp. 4. Address: Office of Information, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Free. Describes the status of pasteurization of milk in this country. Explains the value and necessity of pasteurization in safeguarding our milk supply.

MOTOR FUELS FROM FARM PRODUCTS, by P. B. Jacobs and H. P. Newton, Bureau of Chemistry and Soils. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication No. 327. 1938, pp. 129, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 15 cents. Considers the agricultural, technical, and economic aspects of obtaining motor fuels from farm products. Includes statistics on the annual production and geographic distribution of various farm crops suitable as raw material for producing motor fuels. References.

PLANS OF FARM BUILDINGS FOR WESTERN STATES. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication No. 319. 1939, pp. 120, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 60 cents. Presents illustrations and construction details for various farm buildings such as houses; barns; cattle, sheep, and hog shelters; and storage buildings. Describes briefly suitable types of equipment for these buildings.



14 WELL-NOURISHED CHILDREN. Folder 14. 1939, pp. 16. Address: Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Free. Discusses the food value of various types of foods for children. Methods of forming good food habits and other factors assuring adequate nutrition are considered. Contains list of Government publications on child care and feeding.

CONTAINERS FOR FRUIT AND VEGETABLES, by L. C. Carey, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Farmers' Bulletin No. 1821. 1939, pp. 64, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Discusses various types or classes of containers and the necessity for their standardization by law.

RURAL ZONING AND YOUR COUNTY, by Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture. 1939, pp. 15, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 5 cents. Treats of the advantages of rural zoning and the economy of good land use as contrasted with scattered farmsteads on poor land where families are bankrupting both themselves and their communities. A sample rural zoning plan is included.

HOMEMAKING. 1938, pp. 25. Address: Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers, 6 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill. 10 cents. This bulletin is designed to aid homemaking chairmen of local parent-teacher associations in planning programs, study classes, and exhibits. One section presents brief outlines for 5 lessons dealing with consumer problems such as (1) advertisements as educational material, (2) labeling of food products, and (3) the purchase of meat, milk, textiles, clothing, and hosiery.

CO-OPS IN AGRICULTURE, by French M. Hyre. Circular C-111. 1939, pp. 23, illus. Address: Director of Information and Extension, Farm Credit Administration, Washington, D. C. Free. Contains a brief discussion of the types, importance, and extent of cooperative associations in American farm business. Statistical information is based on data assembled in a recent nationwide survey of farmers' cooperatives.

HOUSING REQUIREMENTS OF FARM FAMILIES IN THE UNITED STATES, by Maud Wilson, Bureau of Home Economics. U. S. Department of Agriculture Miscellaneous Publication No. 322. 1939, pp. 40. Address: Superintendent of Documents,

Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Discusses the general requirements and the need for special planning of farmhouses based on a national survey of the farm housing situation. Information on regional variations in housing requirements of farm families and desirable features for comfort and convenience in farmhouses are presented.

FAMILY INCOMES IN CHICAGO (1935-36), Volume I—Study of Consumer Purchases: Urban Series, by Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. Bulletin 642. 1939, pp. 210. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 25 cents. This booklet and the one following are the first of a series of publications based on the Consumer Purchases Study which is being conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Home Economics.

AGRICULTURAL ADJUSTMENT 1937-38: A Report of the Activities Carried on by the Agricultural Adjustment Administration from January 1, 1937, through June 30, 1938. 1939, pp. 385. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 30 cents. Background of agricultural adjustment discussed, pp. 1-9; activities of Consumers Counsel Division, pp. 61-67; careful index gives other references of interest to consumers.

NUTRITION AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH. Proceedings of a National Conference on the Wider Aspects of Nutrition, London, England, April 27-29, 1939. Pp. 150. Address: British Medical Association, B. M. A. House, Tavistock Square, W. C. 1, London, England. 70¢ post free. This conference, sponsored by the British Medical Association, was attended by 400 delegates representing 7 departments of the British Government, 6 overseas Governments, 80 public and scientific organizations, and 30 industrial and commercial undertakings. Lord Horder, Chairman, stated the conference theme: . . . The problem of malnutrition, of food, and of poverty in the midst of plenty—that surely is not an overstatement—can never be solved compartmentally, but they can be solved if taken together and dealt with by a long-term policy. The conference considered the medical aspects of nutrition, and means of stimulating production and consumption of foods to provide more adequate nutrition on a national scale.

TRADE BARRIERS AMONG THE STATES. Proceedings of the National Conference on

Interstate Trade Barriers, April 5-7, 1939, Chicago, Ill. Pp. 127. Address: The Council of State Governments, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill. 75 cents. This conference considered studies of trade barrier legislation by governmental agencies, and the reports of conference committees on trade barriers as related to taxation, agriculture, liquor control, and commerce and industry.

PROBLEMS UNDER INFORMATIVE LABELING, by F. S. Blanchard, Pacific Mills; Harold Brightman, L. Bamberger & Company; and Esther Cole Franklin, American Association of University Women. Marketing Series Number 34. 1939, pp. 23. Address: American Management Association, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y. 50 cents. Reviews the present status and possible future developments in the field of informative labeling. The writers consider the problems in this field from the standpoint of the manufacturer, retailer, and consumer.

GOOD TEETH, by F. C. Cady and John Knutson, U. S. Public Health Service. Supplement No. 149 to the Public Health Reports. 1939, pp. 6. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 5 cents. Advises on the development of and methods for proper care of teeth in babies and children.

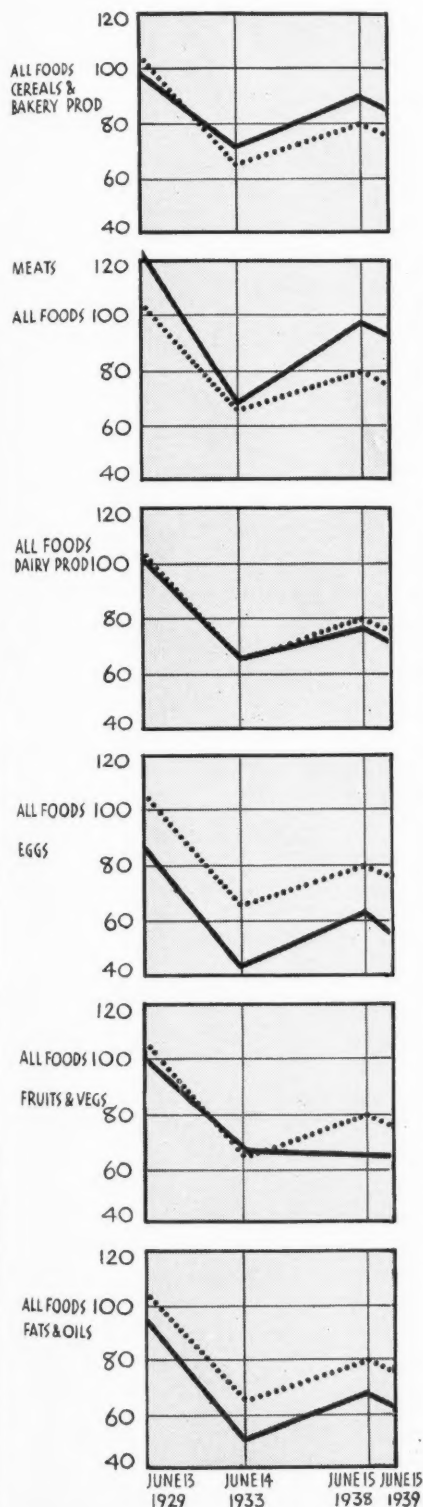
MAKE IT OF LEATHER, by J. G. Schnitzer, U. S. Department of Commerce. Trade Promotion Series No. 190. 1939, pp. 33, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 10 cents. Describes basic equipment and methods for leatherwork, with suggestions and designs for making more than 15 leather articles.

HOUSEFLY CONTROL. U. S. Department of Agriculture Leaflet 182. 1939, pp. 6, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 5 cents. Gives life history and habits, methods of controlling the housefly, and prevention of fly breeding.

REPORT OF THE TWENTY-EIGHTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, held at the National Bureau of Standards, Washington, D. C., May 31, June 1-3, 1938. U. S. Department of Commerce Miscellaneous Publication M161. 1939, pp. 139, illus. Address: Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. 30 cents. Although much of the material in the proceedings is of a technical nature, some problems of interest to consumers are discussed.

YOUR FOOD SUPPLIES AND COSTS 15

A PERSPECTIVE



FOOD COSTS. Watchful consumers probably saw their food bills shade off a bit during June. The cost of most foods stayed rather steady from May to June, but some cuts in meat prices, particularly fresh and salt pork, by the latter month helped to ease the strain on pocketbooks.

America's June food basket cost less than in any June since 1934. It was a fraction of a percent under May's, and almost 5 percent less than last June's. Most important drops in food prices from a year ago have been in eggs, dairy products, fats and oils, cereals, and bakery products.

Stacked against 1923-25, food costs were 24 percent lower; compared with 1929, they were 26 percent smaller; compared with June in 1933, they were 18 percent higher.

August generally marks the period when cantaloups, huckleberries, blueberries, nectarines, and green corn move to market in largest volume. During this month more apples, pears, figs, plums, grapes, sweetpotatoes, poultry, lamb, and beef come marketward.

FRUITS. Watch for bigger supplies of fruit this year. Reports are promising. Compared with last year, chances are that more apples, peaches, and plums, but fewer grapes, pears, and summer oranges, will be marketed.

MELONS. Watermelon and cantaloup supplies may be smaller than in August 1938.

MEATS. Supplies during the remainder of 1939 may be larger than a year ago. More pork than in 1938 but about the same amount of lamb are expected. Beef may be less plentiful despite larger supplies of better grade beef.

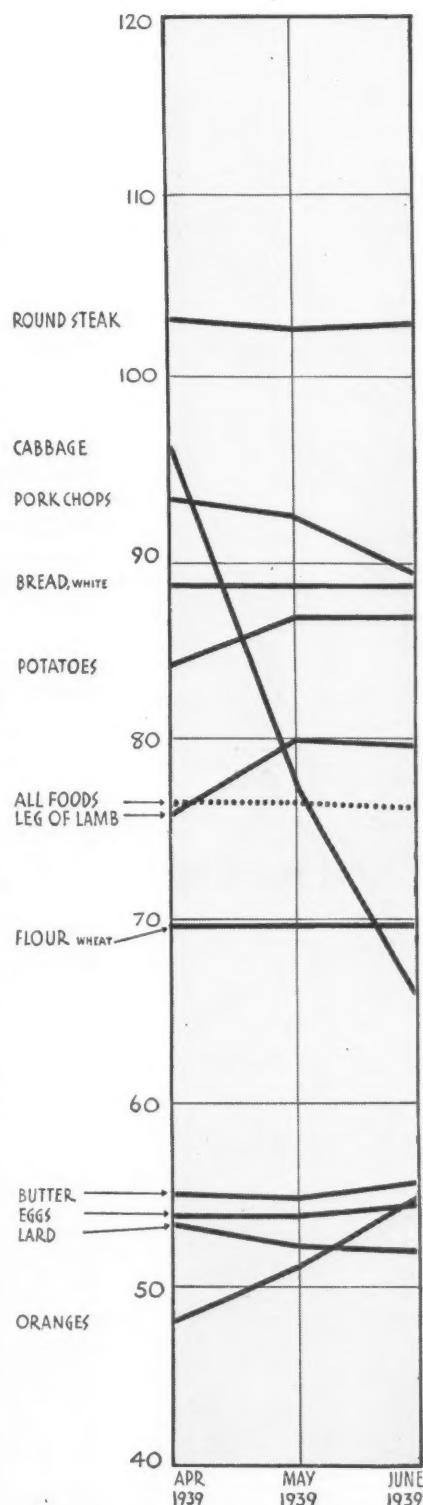
DAIRY PRODUCTS. Butter production in August probably will be relatively large compared with recent years.

POULTRY AND EGGS. Experts expect more chickens and eggs during the remainder of 1939 will be available than in 1938. Turkeys also will probably be more plentiful.

POTATOES. Supplies this summer still are expected to be smaller than in 1938, but in the fall and winter, when the late northern potato crop moves to market, they may be slightly above their 1938 level.

SWEETPOTATOES. Market observers look this year for the third largest supply on record.

A CLOSE-UP



JULY 1939

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